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examination he says that "Wigram's distinction between 'explanatory evidence' and 'evidence of intention' cannot be supported, and that Mr. Hawkins and others are more correct in considering all extrinsic facts tendered in aid of interpretation to be, in effect, evidence of intention, circumstantial or direct. With regard, however, to the general rule of each writer, it is clear that since the admission of extrinsic evidence is determined by a variety of principles . . . it would be well-nigh impossible to devise any simple general rule . . . which could be made to do the work of all possible special ones." The author then points out that Wigram's explanatory evidence is not "always admissible," nor his evidence of intention "always inadmissible," and that Hawkins's view that circumstantial evidence of intention is invariably admissible cannot be sustained.

Mr. Phipson declares that in reducing the various rules and principles to seven working propositions, Wigram seems to have done all that is possible to secure condensation without sacrificing adequacy or exactness. Examining these propositions in detail, Mr. Phipson upholds the second, that primary meanings must if sensible inflexibly prevail, against Professor Thayer's doctrine that if relevant facts favor a secondary meaning that may be adopted. Proposition III is declared correct if properly read with the others, provided it means "the clear modern rule that after proof of an object or objects substantially though incorrectly answering the description, further evidence, *e. g.*, of treatment, dealing, and habits of speech, although not of course of direct declarations, is admissible to show that the testator in fact intended to refer to the object alleged." Except for the "now untenable proposition that 'no fact can be material which is not coincident in point of time with the making of the will,'" Proposition V is sustained. Though Proposition VII, as to equivocation, is not criticised, Hawkins's objection to Wigram's reasons for the admission of declarations of intention is considered strong, when he says that thus defining what is indefinite is making "a material addition to the will," and that it is only an historical anomaly that such evidence is not admissible generally. Mr. Justice Holmes's rejoinder in the HARVARD LAW REVIEW, Vol. XII, pp. 418, 419, is held not to meet these strictures satisfactorily. Subject to these modifications, Mr. Phipson finds in the Propositions the true value of Wigram's work, and declares they appear still to embody the most accurate and exhaustive statement of the law on the present topic.

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A BRIEF HISTORY OF THE PAROL EVIDENCE RULE. — The interesting and valuable results of an original investigation into the sources and development of the rule by which the written memorandum of a transaction is declared to be conclusive as to its terms, is contained in a recent article by Professor Wigmore of the Northwestern University Law School. *A Brief History of the Parol Evidence Rule*, 4 Columbia L. Rev. 338 (May, 1904). The doctrine was unknown to the Germanic invaders of Rome and Western Europe. A general ignorance of letters and the existence of a "legal system of formal oral transactions" combined to strip the *carta*, or document of that period, of further value than as a means of effecting a formal symbolic delivery of land, and of preserving the names of witnesses upon whom alone reliance was placed for proof of the terms of the transaction. A notable advance in the status of written documents appeared with the rise of the seal. The principle that the king's word is indisputable gained for a document bearing his seal incontestability. As the use of the seal came to be extended to all persons, it carried with it the same attributes until, by the thirteenth century, the incontestability of sealed instruments was complete. Consequently the office of witnesses as vouchers for the terms of the original transaction receded into unimportance. But ignorance, coupled with the fact that all transactions affecting land were still practised with oral forms, prevented writings from becoming more than an alternative kind of proof. However, mercantile custom had already led the advance, and a tendency to become lettered had brought with

it an appreciation of the trustworthiness of writing as against the "shiftiness of mere testimonial recollection." So a growing unwillingness of the judges to admit to the jury oral transactions calculated to overturn the words of the writing made for the new principle. Meanwhile the theory of the rule was undergoing a transition. At first the idea prevailed that he who has sealed a document is estopped from proving the terms of the transaction by witnesses. But more important was the theory of the inferiority of certain writings to others, which involved the notion that the sealed instrument discharged or replaced all others. Mr. Wigmore then explains how, with this preparation, the beginning of the final advance to the modern idea was marked by the Statute of Frauds and Perjuries. This legislation, by abolishing the practice of creating freehold estates by oral livery of seisin only, and the necessity of the seal in the case of leases, emphasized the constitutive nature of the document and extended the conception to all writings. This idea was followed in other transactions not affected by the statute, and the modern view came into complete existence. In conclusion Mr. Wigmore points out that the principle of the indisputability of the king's word as embodied in his sealed document led to the conception that the written records of his court were incontestable as well; so that the "notion of a constitutive writing is now extended to include the record of a judicial proceeding."

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**ACTIONS FOR MALICIOUS PROSECUTION.** *Silas Alward.* Considering chiefly the question how far defendant's obtaining opinion of counsel is to be considered probable cause. 40 Can. L. J. 296.

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**BRIEF HISTORY OF THE PAROL EVIDENCE RULE.** *A. John H. Wigmore.* 4 Columbia L. Rev. 338. See *supra*.

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